/46 cont./

171 221 771 796 This is true to such an extent that the annual economic cycle -- which Evans-Pritchard calls the "ecological cycle" (2) --

2. /From p. 64 of the original source./
Evans-Pritchard, 1940, p. 95.

is basically and primarily a cycle of religious life, a kind of "ecclesiastical year," which accompanies the various subsistence activities, especially the different phases of the cultivation of maize /Port. milho/.

174 221 241 796 177 It is possible that the intermeshing of the agricultural year with the religious one is linked to the missionary past of the tribe. The celebration in which the ritual gathering of the first maize is done coincides more or less with Christmas, the New Year, and Epiphany, and various aspects of the ceremonies, as well as certain ritual implements, justify the hypothesis, which I shall discuss in another work, that in it there is a series of reminiscences from the time of the reductions. Furthermore, it is possible that there may have been partial coincidence between the ancient cultural tradition of the tribe and the socio-religious rhythm introduced by the Jesuits.

241 22 184 As a consequence of the polyculture of all the Guaraní groups, the tasks of tilling the soil are distributed throughout the year. Nevertheless there are periods of very intense work in contrast to others in which there is "more rest."

243 22 [184] Thus, among the Kayová and the Ñandéva of southern Mato Grosso, the cultivation of maize generally follows the following calender: in /47/ May, clearing; from May to June, felling the virgin forest; in August, the burning; from August to October, planting; from March on, the harvesting /Port. quebra/. This is valid for the hard maize, intended for sale. The soft maize, saboró, has already been harvested since the beginning of the year; this is the time of the "new food." For beans (kumandá) there are two planting times. One coincides with that of the maize, the beans sometimes being planted in the same clearing, "mixed," in order to be harvested in the first half of November. These are the so-called "beans of the waters," a name that alludes to the season

244 221

/47 cont./

244 221 of the rains, more frequent from November to January. But in December, too, clearings for beans are prepared, followed by planting in January, cleaning in March, and the harvest in early April. Rice, too, is harvested in April. The planting of mandioca is done in May, the cleaning in March of the following year. [249] Sugar cane is planted in May and harvested a year later. Peanuts (manduí) are planted in January and harvested in July.

241 464 221 In general the time when the work piles up the most is the months of August and September, whereas that of the "new food" is the one of the least activity in the plantings. But the period of the most intense work in the clearing of the village is also that of the changa (recompensed work) in the clearings of the fazendeiros and settlers. And since the changa is one of the few means [434] available to the Indian to obtain some money, many fall behind on their own clearings because they are working for money on the nearby fazendas. It should be mentioned in passing that this is one of the factors of economic disorganization of all the native groups of that region, even the most conservative ones. The problem is [245] aggravated by the changa in the yerbales /stands of yerba maté/, inasmuch as the harvest of yerba maté for its part goes on for months, from July to October. The impossibility of reconciling the 177 182 241 ancient activities with the innovations arising from contact with the white man, and the inability to substitute the latter for the former without further ado, seem to be the principal causes of the cultural disintegration and detribalization of the Guaraní groups of southern Mato Grosso.

243 296 221 To the extent that a social and religious calender exists, it is that of maize. There is one annual social concentration because there is only one harvest of maize, which begins with the great celebration of the ñemongaraí, or, as the Kayová prefer to call it, avatí-mongaraí, "baptism of the maize." Aside from exceptional cases, 243 221 even the saboró maize, which ripens in three or four months, is planted at only one time, in contrast to what is done by other [171] native tribes of America, as in Colombia, who have two annual harvests of maize (3).

3. /From p. 64 of the original source./ Birket-Smith, 1943, p. 33.

/50 cont./

243 may occur, "coming from fly larvae" (djahá djarú fiandé avatí
796 mberúre); when green maize can already be taken (djahá djarú
824 fiandé avatí fiahangá); after the first food is prepared with green maize (djahá bovasá fiandé avatí djýguĕ); and, finally, when the first chicha is made from green maize (djahá djárú kĩvira angá or djahá djaporabĕi kĩvira angáre).

241 In sum, all that has been said with regard to maize is associ-
791 ated with the supernatural world. It is true that there is mention of corresponding ceremonies too for the other cultivated plants -- mandioca, sweet potatoes, beans, gourd, moranga /Cucurbita pepo/, tobacco, cotton -- but these seem to be limited to the "baptism" of the first fruits, a kind of exorcism of the "first basketful." Every woman puts down her basket, the mynakú, before the cross that is found in front of the house of the paí, in order to "baptize" herself and "in order not to have stomach-aches." This is valid for all the products of the clearings, among which maize is distinguished because of providing the marks of a genuine religio-economic calender, to the extent that, as we have seen, one may almost speak of a "maize religion."

• 244 In comparison with maize, mandioca is of secondary im-
262 portance in the alimentation of the Guaraní. Nonetheless it is considered indispensable, especially in the months in which maize begins to be scarce. It exists at all times of the year and constitutes a permanent basic food of native cookery. For this reason, too, it cannot give rise to any social, or at least ceremonial, rhythm. In the villages of the Paulista coast, mandioca flour, as [177] a consequence of the contact with the alimentation system of the caiçara /caboclos of the coast/ and perhaps also by virtue of the geographic conditions, long ago surpassed maize in importance in [171] native cookery. One should note in /51/ this respect that mandioca always seems to have been more important than maize in the Tupí-Guaraní cultures localized in eastern South America, contrary to what is noted for the slopes of the Andean Cordillera.

2: Schaden--58 E-4, 5 (1948-1954) 1962 S344 Guarani S344

/51 cont./

244 222 For cooking, of course, one uses the sweet mandioca, or aipim, of considerable consumption in some villages, particularly Kayová ones. In none of the communities, except the two ancient [114] ones of the Paulista coast (Itariri and Bananal) have I found the manufacture of bitter-mandioca flour. And even there the phases [171] of the process, as well as the whole traffic, were practically identical with the ones observed in the caiçara population, who for their part have known mandioca for centuries through the primi- [177] tive natives of the coast. And among the present-day Guaraní there is also an awareness that, at least in part, it is a matter of knowledge transmitted by the caiçaras in recent times.

252 Thus, they claim to have been "with the shore people for [192] that," in learning to make manema, as the latter say, or parí kĩtĩ (hard flour), according to the hybrid expression of the Guaraní. To the grated mass that is to yield the parí kĩtĩ is added mandió pý, mandioca previously soaked in the river (during four days and four nights) and then pounded in a mortar; the mixture remains in the tipití for one night, so that the mandióku͠era drains off. The mass is put through a sieve. Afterwards it is put in the flour- [192] pan /the original text reads forneia-se, "it is put in the oven" (Port. forno, "oven"), but it is to be noted below that forno refers to the pan for making flour/, the dry mass being put in little by little (4).

[171] 4. /From p. 64 of the original source./ It is interesting to compare this technique with the last one of the three indicated by Hans Staden for the coastal Tupinambá. Staden, 1943, pp. 162-163.

[171] But the white flour, parí vévé, or, as some say, mandió-kuí [192] morõtĩ (white mandioca powder), is also made by processes identical to those of the caiçaras.

[462] To the extent that I could be present during the making of flour, all the work was done by women. But there does not seem to be a rigid sexual division of labor in this respect. At Itariri I [114] took a photograph of old Capitão Silvino demonstrating the use [126] of the grater.

3:Watson E-4,5 (1943) 1952 SM4 Guarani SM4

II. CAYUÁ CULTURE IN THE PAST

121 IN this account of Cayuá culture in the past, "the past" is taken as roughly the time of the European entry, before any considerable alien influence was felt by the Guarani-speakers of the Paraguayan area. The description is partly based on comparative material, that is, contemporary accounts of other Guarani groups; there is no extensive contemporary account of the Cayuá but only random references to them or to peoples who might be Cayuá. It is almost certain, too, that the term "Cayuá" (or its equivalents) was not being widely applied in the early colonial period to the forebears of the people in question.

127 The present description also depends in part on a few, brief, later accounts,
121 Rengger,[83] at the beginning of the 19th century, and von Koenigswald,[84] Sampaio,[85] and Ambrosetti[86] at the turn of the century. Müller[87] and Strelnikov,[88] whose work was done in the early 20th century, are also of some help in reconstruction. Rengger, in particular, and von Koenigswald and Sampaio to a lesser extent, all bear out the contention of great basic similarity between the Cayuá people and their Guarani-speaking neighbors. This certainly puts us on safer ground as far as being able to use comparative material for reconstructing Cayuá culture. It is possible to pick up an early account, even of the coastal Tupi of Brazil, and go down the list of cultural elements, checking off the majority which appear to have been in a general sense common among Cayuá. In the opinion of the writer, due caution has been exercised where aspects of Cayuá aboriginal culture were probably similar to other Tupi-Guarani cultures but where we do not have sufficient material to judge with finality.

ECONOMY

174* The Cayuá, like their relatives, were primarily agricultural people, as
241 early as we have any information about them. They practiced much the
433 same type of tropical forest agriculture as the Tupinambá groups of the Brazilian coast and must have been nearly identical in agriculture with their Guarani neighbors in Paraguay. Métraux has argued that the agriculture of the Tupi-Guarani peoples in the Paraguay region was somewhat different, as to the importance of the various plants basic to it, from that of the more
174* northerly tribes near the equator.[89] It has been said, for instance, that corn
243 was more important to the southern groups and manioc to the northern groups,
• 244 because of environmental differences. However, such differences in agriculture
433 were usually of degree, though perhaps significant. Manioc was, from every

184 [83] Rengger, 1835. [84] Von Koenigswald, 1908. [85] Sampaio, 1890.
[86] Ambrosetti, 1894 [87] Müller, 1934-35.
[88] Strelnikov, 1928. [89] Métraux, 1928, pp. 65 ff.; p. 102.

3:Watson E-4,5 (1943) 1952 SM4 Guarani SM4

indication, quite important to the southern groups and to the Cayuá.[a] Sweet potatoes may have been more important in the south than in the equatorial north, if we consider only the Tupi-Guarani.

Far more impressive than the differences of degree of use of various plants, both wild and cultivated, are the similarities of kind. The list of plants for the north is surprisingly close to that for the south, and it would be interesting to know to what extent the similarity may be explained on the grounds of cultural diffusion and to what extent on grounds of climatic and phytogeographic similarities. The use of wild plants for food is also parallel with the north although plant geography is obviously more directly influential here.

Manioc, corn, sweet potatoes, beans, squashes, peanuts, *cará* (*Dioscorea sp.*), *mangára* (*Aroides sp.*), *mbakuká* (a *leguminosa*), watermelons, bananas (?) pineapples, and papaya were among the most important crops. Manioc, corn, and sweet potatoes were the primary crops, to judge somewhat but not solely by the present. Several varieties of manioc were recognised, and probably both the bitter and the sweet were known, although it does not appear that bitter manioc was used to the same extent in the south that it was in the north. A number of varieties of both corn and potatoes were recognised. Corn was distinguished by whether it was the flinty type or the soft, starchy kind and, within the latter class, also by color. The Cayuá, presumably in the past as at present, attempted to keep separate their plantations of different kinds of corn within the limits of their crude appreciation of the manner of intermixture. Sweet potatoes, like corn, were distinguished by color (of the pulp), and about seven kinds were thus named. They range from the whitish, through the purple and reddish kinds, to the light yellow and the bright orange-yellow. The latter are similar to what are sometimes called "yams" in this country. Judging only from the present, little attempt was made to plant and harvest sweet potatoes according to color.

Technologically, the agriculture of the Cayuá was of the familiar tropical slash-and-burn type, with definitely recognised stages in the process. First the small brush and trees were cut, and then the larger trees, though only as many of them as seemed absolutely necessary or possible within the limits of available equipment. (The large trees were not so readily felled, of course, as they are at present by the use of steel axes.) The fallen vegetation was allowed to lie for a while to dry in the sun, the dry winter season of the year usually therefore being chosen for the cutting. When sufficiently dry, or if wet weather impended, the slash was fired. Sometimes slash was piled about the trunks of standing trees or unburned fallen logs by way of gradually

[a] If Neo-Brazilian acculturation today is any indication, it does seem as if the indigenous North developed the use of manioc to a higher degree than the South (and probably developed the use of corn somewhat less than the South). That is, the present-day use of manioc by whites is more developed in the North than the South.

3: Watson E-4,5 (1943) 1952 SM4 Guarani SM4

*174 596 342 tioned off or given any real means of privacy, to judge from the absence of comment to this point in the literature and the lack of any present tradition. Some *tapái* apparently housed so many occupants that to uninitiated European observers such as Rengger[a] the dwelling groups were taken to be whole tribes, all the members of which were living under a single roof.

*174 361 342 Adding to the impression of the *tapái* group as an autonomous unit, sometimes mistaken for a "tribe," was the fact that each *tapái* (perhaps group of *tapái*) stood quite alone in the forest at some distance from the nearest neighboring *tapái*. How great the distance may have been within a single recognised community of *tapái*-extended families is not known, but it is quite clear that often, if not always, no other *tapái* could be seen from the location of a given dwelling. This condition seems to have been associated in some way with the importance of hunting and gathering in a forest area and also with the Cayuá penchant for concealment of their dwellings and the trails to them. [178] (The latter inclination is still today manifest in subtle ways.) Apparently one came suddenly and with no forewarning upon a *tapái*, its clearing opening abruptly out of the dense surrounding forest. Such isolation could only stress the basic importance and discreteness of the extended family dwelling unit among the Cayuá, and its relative autonomy.

*174 596 433 241 Economically also, the basic unity and autonomy of the extended family was given expression. The *tapái* group was the fundamental production-consumption unit of the Cayuá. Its *kokué*, or agricultural clearing, was farmed jointly by the extended family members and the produce jointly distributed. There are inferences that elementary families did not possess individual clearings; it is not impossible, however, that certain sections of the *tapái's kokué* plantation were separately assigned to the several component elementary families. It is not certain that hunting activity was joint, although certain types of fishing may have been, notably that in which the poisonous *timbó* plant was employed. In any case, the products of hunting and fishing were sometimes (perhaps regularly) jointly distributed in a manner suggesting the extended family as the basic group. In the preparation of *cáuí* and the giving of a drinking fest in which large quantities of this beverage were consumed, the *tapái* group was the smallest effective unit of the community. The women of the extended family were the ones to prepare the drink and the common (?) stores of the *tapái* furnished the ingredients of corn, potatoes, or manioc.

*174 582 [244] [226] [273] [462]

The aboriginal relation of the extended family grouping to kinship suggests a controversial point. The Cayuá may have had a somewhat unusual type of marital right or presumptive marriage of mother's brother with sister's daughter (maternal uncle to niece). Wagley and Galvão state that they failed

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[a] Rengger, 1835, pp. 120, 130–131.

3:Watson E-4,5 (1943) 1952 SM4 Guarani SM4

Slashing activity preparatory to burning should be completed somewhat in advance of the end of the dry season, preferably by August. The trunks, limbs, and foliage of the cut vegetation will then be partly dried out in order to burn well. Sometimes the cutting for the coming season may start as early as April. But a surprising number of Cayuá are remiss in attending to their clearing activities in sufficient time to get a good burning. Thus there are complaints of rains which came before they should have and impeded the burning, and other similar difficulties. In 1943, some *kokwé* were still being burned by October 19 while others already had beans and corn, and other plants, well above the ground.

During the agricultural months, which are, of course, the summer months, hunting is relegated by most Cayuá to occasional week-end trips. On these occasions the man may be absent for a day, or even only a half-day, roaming the woods and fields in search of game. At other times, except for an occasional morning or afternoon excursion, made perhaps when the weather is not right for work in the *kokwé*, he will not be able to find sufficient time for hunting. Moreover, a man will use some of the time not needed in agriculture in some other way, such as craft work, repairs about the house, and the like. During the winter, there is more time for hunting, but then it is often bitterly cold for the light clothing the Cayuá wear.

The first fruits ceremony, marked by the "baptism" of new corn, usually comes in late January or February, but the entire harvest, including other crops, may well run from sometime before until sometime after the baptism. This community-sanctioned harvest, however, cannot be considered the termination of all agricultural activity for the year. The plants which the Cayuá say "have no season," notably manioc and sweet potatoes, are not necessarily harvested in the usual sense. They may be left in the ground and merely dug up and used as needed. This activity in some cases continues practically throughout the year, depending only on when the crops were sown.

The Relative Importance of Agriculture, Fishing, and Hunting

While agriculture has benefited by acculturation in other ways, no large number of important new plants has been taken over. The crops aboriginally most important remain so still, but a few new plants have been adopted which are of some significance to the Cayuá. Among them are two types of sugar cane, widely grown as a delicacy and for addition (the juice) to *cāuī'*. Certain kinds of beans, rice—which is so far grown by only a few—and several garden crops have also been adopted, such as onions and garlic.

The present Cayuá allege that one of their two main varieties of corn comes from the whites (that called *aBatī tupī'*, the hard or flint type), although this is not borne out by the botanical evidence.[125] Nevertheless, Cayuá usages

[125] Cutler, 1946, p. 280.

3:Watson E-4,5 (1943) 1952 SM4 Guarani SM4

number of workers could produce a modern type house in the amount of time it would take them to build a much larger *tapúi*. Given metal tools, however, the ordinary elementary family can make reasonable headway with the construction of a modern house, especially with the occasional assistance of relatives. (Assistance is sometimes almost indispensable, particularly in the long and repeated trips to the forest to bring building materials, such as thatch and bamboo trunks.) But a man and his wife, even assisted intermittently by close relatives, would move exceedingly slowly in erecting a *tapúi*. In other words, building a *tapúi* is a large-scale operation requiring a number of people, with or without metal tools, whereas the modern house requires only a small work group, granted the machete.[143] Thus the modern small house seems intimately related to the elementary family in the matter of production.

Cayuá dwelling patterns also reflect the present production-consumption unit. At Taquapiri a considerable number of the houses are closely grouped at the same place. With transitory Cayuá occupation of agricultural land, many houses are necessarily situated at considerable remove from their *kokwé*, some up to as much as a mile or even more.[144] Moreover, it often happens that a man may have two fields under cultivation, and he may thus have an even greater distance to cover in walking from his house to his agricultural work.[145]

Elementary families (judging from Taquapiri, at least) tend almost uniformly to locate their houses close to those of their nearest relatives. Thus, the elementary family houses are now largely grouped as to what would formerly have been extended family affiliations. At Taquapiri this clustering of houses has resulted in greater distance to go to get to the fields. Even in the case of a

[143] The existing *tapúi* at Taquapiri was built jointly by men from several related families, but families not all related to each other as components of an extended family. The lone *tapúi* now has certain communal aspects, too, not characteristic of other houses.

[144] Judging from the Cayuá settlements that we observed—which were not by any means half of the total in Brazil—the location of houses in relation to fields at Taquapiri may not be typical. For there the largest number of houses is clustered fairly closely giving the settlement much the impression one thinks of in a village. Elsewhere—in the other three settlements of Cayuá visited—the present arrangement of houses, widely scattered in the forest and each usually located in the middle, or on the edge, of its respective *kokwé* was much more suggestive than Taquapiri of the probable aboriginal situation. Even at Taquapiri there are some individuals who have located their houses away from the village cluster and have put them next to or in their *kokwé*. This contributes to the impression that location apart, and not the "village" type, is the older arrangement. It is also possible that the break-up into elementary family units is not in other places so marked as at Taquapiri.

[145] Different kinds of soil are recognized as being favorable to different crops; also, it is believed—probably with justification—that it takes a while for the ants and other plagues to "discover" a *kokwé* newly cut from the forest. Once they "discover" a field, they multiply enough to hamper the growing of crops most susceptible to them. Thus, corn, for example, is almost always a preferred first or second crop in a new *kokwé*. Manioc tends to attract ants very rapidly and therefore has to be shifted frequently. The occupation of agricultural land varies with a number of factors but probably averages around four or five years.